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Molecular characterization of a short neuropeptide F signaling system in the tsetse fly, *Glossina morsitans morsitans*

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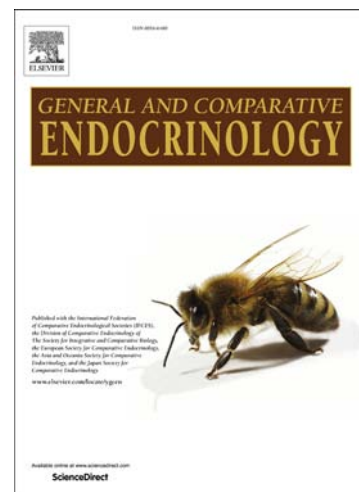
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1 Title

2 Molecular characterization of a short neuropeptide F signaling system in the tsetse
3 fly, *Glossina morsitans morsitans*

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31 Abstract

32 Neuropeptides of the short neuropeptide F (sNPF) family are widespread among
33 arthropods and found in every sequenced insect genome so far. Prior functional
34 studies have mainly focused on the regulatory role of sNPF in feeding behavior,
35 although this neuropeptide family has pleiotropic effects including in the control of
36 locomotion, osmotic homeostasis, sleep, learning and memory. Here, we set out to
37 characterize and determine possible roles of sNPF signaling in the haematophagous
38 tsetse fly *Glossina morsitans morsitans*, a vector of African *Trypanosoma* parasites
39 causing human and animal African trypanosomiasis. We cloned the *G. m. morsitans*
40 cDNA sequences of an sNPF-like receptor (Glomo-sNPFR) and precursor protein
41 encoding four Glomo-sNPF neuropeptides. All four Glomo-sNPF peptides
42 concentration-dependently activated Glomo-sNPFR in a cell-based calcium
43 mobilization assay, with EC₅₀ values in the nanomolar range. Gene expression
44 profiles in adult female tsetse flies indicate that the Glomo-sNPF system is mainly
45 restricted to the nervous system. *Glomo-snpfr* transcripts were also detected in the
46 hindgut of adult females. In contrast to the *Drosophila* sNPF system, tsetse larvae
47 lack expression of *Glomo-snpf* and *Glomo-snpfr* genes. While *Glomo-snpf* transcript
48 levels are upregulated in pupae, the onset of *Glomo-snpfr* expression is delayed to
49 adulthood. Expression profiles in adult tissues are similar to those in other insects
50 suggesting that the tsetse sNPF system may have similar functions such as a
51 regulatory role in feeding behavior, together with a possible involvement of sNPFR
52 signaling in osmotic homeostasis. Our molecular data will enable further
53 investigations into the functions of sNPF signaling in tsetse flies.

54

55 Keywords

56 Insect

57 Tsetse fly

58 *Glossina morsitans morsitans*

59 Neuropeptide

60 short neuropeptide F

61 G protein-coupled receptor

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63 Abbreviations

64 sNPF: short neuropeptide F

65 sNPFR: short neuropeptide F receptor

66 GPCR: G protein-coupled receptor

67 CHO: Chinese hamster ovary

68 NPF: neuropeptide F

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73 1. Introduction

74 Tsetse flies (genus *Glossina*) are the transmitters of African trypanosomes
 75 throughout sub-Saharan Africa, thereby causing human and animal African
 76 trypanosomiasis with impact on human health and local economy. One of the best
 77 trypanosomiasis control strategies has proven to be the reduction of tsetse fly
 78 populations (Attardo et al., 2010). The success of this vector control resides in the
 79 low reproduction potential of tsetse flies stemming from their viviparous reproductive
 80 strategy, which is rather unique in insects. Female tsetse flies can generate only 8 to
 81 12 individuals during their lifetime (Tobe and Langley, 1978), which are nourished
 82 during larvagenesis via intrauterine milk secretions from the maternal accessory
 83 gland (Denlinger and Ma, 1974). Similarly to tsetse reproduction physiology, their
 84 feeding behavior is also rather unique because both males and females are obligate
 85 blood feeders and rely exclusively on proline as major energy source (Bursell, 1977).
 86 However, little is known about the regulation of this blood feeding behavior (Lehane,
 87 2005). Studying the involved signaling systems can point towards interesting targets
 88 that may decrease fly fitness and lead to the development of new vector control
 89 strategies.

90 Neuropeptide systems are essential signaling systems that are well conserved during
 91 evolution and engaged in many physiological functions, including feeding behavior.
 92 Amongst these, the short neuropeptide F (sNPF) system has been widely linked to
 93 feeding behavior. So far, it has been exclusively identified in Arthropoda, wherein
 94 sNPFs are characterized by an xPxLRLRFamide consensus sequence (Nässel and
 95 Wegener, 2011). From transcript analyses, peptide administration and proteomics
 96 studies, it has become evident that sNPFs have opposing effects on feeding
 97 depending on the insect species. While it promotes food intake in some species,
 98 such as *Drosophila*, it negatively correlates with food intake in other species such as
 99 the silk moth *Bombyx mori* (Nagata et al., 2012, reviewed by Spit et al., 2012).

100 Besides a well-described role in the regulation of feeding behavior, sNPF has been
 101 implicated in other physiological processes. In *Drosophila*, sNPF signaling is involved
 102 in locomotion (Kahsai et al., 2010b), metabolism and stress resistance (Kahsai et al.
 103 2010; Kapan et al. 2012). In addition, sNPFs are thought to regulate hormone
 104 release (Nässel et al., 2008), circadian rhythm (Johard et al., 2009), osmotic
 105 homeostasis (Kahsai et al. 2010) and learning and memory (Dillen et al., 2015;
 106 Johard et al., 2008). In *B. mori*, sNPF has been associated with suppression of
 107 juvenile hormone synthesis (Kaneko and Hiruma, 2014; Yamanaka et al., 2008).

108 With the publication of its genome in 2014, we identified several neuropeptide
 109 systems in the tsetse fly *Glossina morsitans morsitans*, including an sNPF system
 110 (International *Glossina* Genome Initiative, 2014). *In silico* studies predicted a single
 111 *G. m. morsitans snpf* (*Glomo-snpf*) gene with four putative Glomo-sNPF peptides
 112 (International *Glossina* Genome Initiative, 2014). This is in accordance with findings
 113 in other insect species in which only one *snpf* gene is present encoding one to five

sNPFs, with the exception of *Aedes aegypti* which has two *snpf* genes (Predel et al., 2010). In addition, the *Glossina* Genome Initiative predicted a *G. m. morsitans snpfr* (*Glomo-snpfr*) gene that encodes a single Glomo-sNPFR of the rhodopsin G-protein coupled receptor (GPCR) family. Besides sNPF, over 30 other neuropeptides are conserved in tsetse flies including a single gene for neuropeptide F (Glomo-NPF) and the neuropeptide F receptor Glomo-NPFR (International *Glossina* Genome Initiative, 2014)

Here we further characterized the predicted sNPF system of the tsetse fly and studied the activation of Glomo-sNPFR by its neuropeptide ligands as well as the spatiotemporal expression of *Glomo-snpf* and *Glomo-snpfr* genes in female tsetse flies.

2. Materials and methods

2.1 Animal rearing conditions

G. m. morsitans flies were obtained from the Institute of Tropical Medicine in Antwerp (Elsen et al., 1993) and reared at 26°C and 65% relative humidity. Flies were fed three times a week using an artificial membrane with defibrinated and gamma-irradiated bovine blood.

2.2 Cloning of *Glomo-snpf* and *Glomo-snpfr* cDNAs

The open reading frames (ORFs) encoding the predicted *G. m. morsitans* sNPFR (*Glomo-snpfr*. Vectorbase ID: (GMOY006636) and sNPF (*Glomo-snpf*. Vectorbase ID: (GMOY012142) precursor were amplified from female *G. m. morsitans* cDNA using Advantage 2 Polymerase (Clontech) and the following primers (Sigma-Aldrich) for *Glomo-snpfr*: Fw 5'- CACCATGCCCAACTTCAATCTCACCAAGAC-3' and Rev 5'- TCAGTTGCAGCTTTGTTTGTTCGCTC-3' and *Glomo-snpf*: Fw 5'- CATGCATTTTCGCAGTCG-3' and Rev 5'-CATTCGTGCAGCGCATTTAG-3'. The *Glomo-snpfr* forward primer was designed with a partial Kozak sequence preceding the authentic start codon to optimize initiation of translation in mammalian cells which were used in the calcium mobilization assay (Kozak, 1987). PCR products were purified and subsequently extended with a single 3' A-overhang by making use of dATP and *Taq* polymerase before cloning to enable T/A cloning into the pcDNA3.1/V5-His-TOPO®TA expression vector (*Glomo-snpfr*) or the pCR4-TOPO®TA sequencing vector (*Glomo-snpf*) (Invitrogen). Cloned *Glomo-snpfr* and *Glomo-snpf* constructs were transformed into One Shot TOP10 chemically competent *Escherichia coli* cells (Invitrogen) and plasmids were isolated with the GenElute™ Plasmid Miniprep Kit (Sigma-Aldrich). Cloned cDNA sequences were determined on an ABI PRISM 3130 Genetic Analyzer (Applied Biosystems) using the ABI PRISM BigDye Terminator Ready Reaction Cycle Sequencing Kit (Applied Biosystems).

2.3 Sequence analyses of Glomo-sNPFR and Glomo-sNPF precursor

The protein sequence of the cloned *Glomo-sNPFR* ORF was analyzed for the presence of putative transmembrane regions with the software programs PSIPRED and MEMSAT3 (bioinf.cs.ucl.ac.uk/psipred) (Jones, 2007). Phosphorylation, glycosylation and palmytoylation sites were respectively predicted with NetPhos 2.0, NetNGlyc 1.0 and GSS-PALM 4.0 (www.cbs.dtu.dk/services/NetPhos, www.cbs.dtu.dk/services/NetNGlyc and csspalm.biocuckoo.org/online.php) (Blom et al., 1999; Gupta and Brunak, 2002; Ren et al., 2008). Protein sequence alignment of *Glomo-sNPFR* with other dipteran sNPFRs was performed with Clustal Omega (www.clustal.org) (Sievers et al., 2011) and included *D. melanogaster* sNPFR (Drome-sNPFR: CG7395) (Mertens et al., 2002), *Musca domestica* sNPFR (Musdo-sNPFR: MDOA011011), *Anopheles gambiae* sNPFR (Anoga-sNPFR: AGAP012378) (Garczynski et al., 2007), and *Aedes aegypti* sNPFR (Aedae-sNPFR: AGX84996.1). The protein sequence of the cloned sNPFR precursor was analyzed for the presence of an N-terminal signal peptide using SignalP 4.1 (www.cbs.dtu.dk/services/SignalP/) (Petersen et al., 2011).

2.4 Spatial and temporal transcript profiles of *Glomo-snpf* and *Glomo-snpfr*

Transcript profiles of *Glomo-snpf* and *Glomo-snpfr* were determined by real-time quantitative PCR (RTqPCR) in different tissues of female tsetse flies and at different developmental stages for which sex could not be distinguished. Tissues were dissected under a binocular microscope, collected in ice-cold phosphate buffered saline (PBS) (NaCl 137 mM, KCl 2.7 mM, Na₂HPO₄ 10 mM, KH₂PO₄ 1.76 mM; pH 7.4) and immediately frozen in liquid nitrogen. Three biological repeats were assembled for each tissue. For each biological repeat, the following tissues were collected: a single female head, thorax and abdomen; an 18-day-old pupal head, thorax and abdomen; a complete 18-day-old pupa; an 11-day-old pupa; and first, second and third larval instars. Additionally, tissues from five flies were pooled in one biological repeat for: the female reproductive system including the uterus and ovaries; the flight muscles; the fat body including the milk gland; the anterior midgut; the posterior midgut; the Malpighian tubules; and the entire brain including the optical lobes, antennal lobes and suboesophageal ganglion. For the thoracic ganglion, corpora cardiaca and corpora allata, salivary glands, and hindgut, tissues from 10 females were pooled for one biological repeat. The dissected tissues were subsequently transferred to MagNA Lyser Green Beads tubes (Roche) and homogenized with the MagNA Lyser[®] (Roche). Total RNA isolation was performed using the RNeasy[®] Lipid Tissue Mini Kit (Qiagen) in combination with a DNase digestion (RNase-free DNase Set, Qiagen). The PrimeScript[™] RT Reagent Kit (Perfect Real Time; TaKaRa Bio Inc.) was used to generate cDNA that was diluted 10-fold. For every tissue sample, a negative control sample was generated to control for the presence of unwanted genomic DNA in which reverse transcriptase was omitted from the cDNA synthesis protocol. The Fast SYBR[®] Green Master Mix (Applied Biosystems) was used for all RTqPCR experiments. Reference genes for normalization of the RTqPCR results were determined with the geNorm applet of

qbase⁺ 2.4 (Biogazelle; see Supplementary data 1 for primer sequences, thermocycle details and reaction efficiencies) (Hellemans et al., 2007; Vandesompele et al., 2002). *cyp33*, *actin C* and *β -tub* genes were found to be most stably expressed in the total sample set. In addition to three biological repeats, three technical replicates were run for each individual sample. Every primer set was checked for potential master mix contamination by adding a no template control. Data analysis was performed according to the $\Delta\Delta C_T$ method with qbase⁺ (Livak and Schmittgen, 2001).

2.5 Cell culture and transient transfections

Functional activation studies of Glomo-sNPFR were performed in Chinese hamster ovary cells (CHO-K1) that stably overexpress an apoaequorin calcium indicator targeted to mitochondria (mtAeq), a promiscuous human $G\alpha_{16}$ subunit, and a zeocin resistance gene (CHO/mtAeq/ $G\alpha_{16}$) (Stables et al., 1997). The promiscuous $G\alpha_{16}$ subunit directs the intracellular signaling pathway of most GPCRs to the activation of phospholipase C and subsequent release of calcium from intracellular stores (Brough and Shah, 2009; Offermanns and Simon, 1995). The CHO/mtAeq/ $G\alpha_{16}$ cell line was cultured in monolayer in Dulbecco's Modified Eagles Medium nutrient mixture F12-Ham (DMEM/F12; Sigma-Aldrich) supplemented with 10% heat-inactivated fetal bovine serum (FBS, Invitrogen), 100 IU/ml of penicillin/streptomycin (P/S, Invitrogen), 250 μ g/ml zeocin (Invitrogen) and 2.5 μ g/ml fungizone (Amphotericin B; Invitrogen). Downstream intracellular signaling of the Glomo-sNPFR was investigated using CHO/mtAeq cells that do not express a $G\alpha_{16}$ subunit. These cells were cultured in DMEM/F12 supplemented with 10% FBS, 100 IU/ml P/S, 2.5 μ g/ml fungizone and 5 μ g/ml puromycin (Invitrogen). Both cell lines were incubated at 37°C and 5% CO₂ in a humidified atmosphere and were passaged every three days (1:10). When cells reached 60-80% confluence, they were transfected with pcDNA3.1-*Glomo-snpfr* or empty pcDNA3.1 vector using Lipofectamine LTX (Invitrogen). After 16 to 18 hours at 37°C and 5% CO₂, cells were supplemented with fresh cell medium and incubated overnight (37°C, 5% CO₂) before the calcium mobilization assay was performed.

2.6 *In vitro* calcium mobilization assay

Calcium responses of CHO cells transfected with pcDNA3.1-*Glomo-snpfr* or empty pcDNA3.1 vector were measured with an aequorin-based calcium mobilization assay. Transfected cells were first detached with PBS containing 0.2 % EDTA and collected in 10 mL complete DMEM/F12 medium. Cell density was determined with the NucleoCounter (Chemometec), and cells were resuspended in bovine serum albumin (BSA) medium (DMEM/F12 without phenol red with L-glutamine and 15 mM HEPES, Gibco, supplemented with 0.1% BSA, Sigma-Aldrich) to a density of 5×10^6 cells per mL. Next, cells were loaded with 5 μ M coelenterazine h (Invitrogen) and incubated for 4 hours at room temperature to reconstitute the aequorin calcium indicator. 96-well compound plates were prepared containing a concentration series of the different Glomo-sNPF peptides. The *G. m. morsitans* neuropeptide F (Glomo-NPF),

which shares the same C-terminal RxRFamide with Glomo-sNPF neuropeptides, was also tested for its ability to activate Glomo-sNPFR. Additionally, wells with only BSA medium were set as negative controls. ATP (1 μ M) was included as a positive control, which activates an endogenous CHO cell receptor. Compound plates were placed in the Mithras LB940 luminometer (Berthold Technologies). Cells were then added to the wells by the luminometer device at a density of 25,000 cells/ well, and luminescence was measured for 30 s at a wavelength of 469 nm. After 30 s, 0.1% triton X-100 was added to lyse the cells, resulting in a maximal calcium response that was measured for 10 s. To exclude activation of endogenous CHO receptors by the Glomo-sNPF peptides, cells transfected with an empty pcDNA3.1 construct were also tested. Three independent experiments each containing three replicates of the peptide concentration series were conducted. GraphPad Prism 5 was used to analyze data and construct concentration response curves (nonlinear regression analysis with a sigmoidal concentration-response equation).

2.7 Peptides

Glomo-sNPF-1 (AQRSPSLRLRFamide), Glomo-sNPF-2 (SPSLRLRFamide), Glomo-sNPF-3 (PQRLRFamide), Glomo-sNPF-4 (PARLRFamide) and Glomo-NPF (NTRPTRNDEIANIEEALQYLQELNFYDGKARIRFamide) were synthesized by GL Biochem Ltd. (Shanghai). All peptides were purified by reversed-phase high performance liquid chromatography (HPLC), and their sequence was verified with a matrix-assisted laser desorption/ionization tandem time-of-flight (MALDI TOF/TOF, Ultraflex II Bruker Daltonics) mass spectrometer.

3. Results

3.1 Cloning and sequence analyses of *G. m. morsitans snpfr* and *snpf* cDNAs

We previously predicted through gene annotation and BLAST searches the presence of a *Glomo-snpf* and *Glomo-snpfr* gene in the *G. m. morsitans* genome (International *Glossina* Genome Initiative, 2014). Using gene-specific primers based on the predicted sequences, we isolated *Glomo-snpf* and *Glomo-snpfr* cDNAs from female *G. m. morsitans*. Translated protein sequences of the cloned cDNAs were identical to the predicted protein sequences of Glomo-sNPFR and Glomo-sNPF. The Glomo-sNPF precursor sequence encodes a 25 amino acid long signal peptide and four putative sNPF neuropeptides (Figure 1), of which two peptides share the [xPxLRLRFamide] consensus motif of the sNPF neuropeptide family (Nässel and Wegener, 2011). Protein sequence alignments of Glomo-sNPFR with other dipteran sNPFRs demonstrate a high overall sequence identity and similarity, with the highest conservation in the transmembrane domains (supplementary data 2). For example, Glomo-sNPFR shares 66% sequence identity with Musdo-sNPFR, 64% with Anoga-sNPFR, 63% with Drome-sNPFR, and 59% with Aedae-sNPFR. In addition, the Glomo-sNPFR sequence harbors typical motifs of the rhodopsin-like GPCR family

and multiple putative phosphorylation, palmitoylation and glycosylation sites (Figure 2).

3.2 Spatial and temporal transcript profiles of *Glomo-snpfr* and *Glomo-snpf*

We investigated temporal and spatial distributions of *Glomo-snpfr* and *Glomo-snpf* transcripts by RTqPCR using RNA samples from different tissues of adult female tsetse flies and from different developmental stages. For both *Glomo-snpf* and *Glomo-snpfr* genes, highest transcript levels were found in the corpora cardiaca and corpora allata of adult female flies (Figure 3A, B). In addition, *Glomo-snpfr* transcripts were expressed at moderate levels in the thoracic ganglion, hindgut, brain, and head samples. Other examined tissues showed no or very low *Glomo-snpfr* expression. Absence of *Glomo-snpfr* expression was also seen during larval and pupal development (Figure 3A). Similarly to the results for *Glomo-snpfr*, *Glomo-snpf* expression was observed in the thoracic ganglion, brain, and head samples of adult females, and was absent in the different larval instars. In contrast, *Glomo-snpf* expression was noticeable in 11-day-old pupae and in the heads of 18-day-old pupae (Figure 3B).

3.3 Functional activation of Glomo-sNPFR by Glomo-sNPF neuropeptides

To determine whether Glomo-sNPF neuropeptides can functionally activate Glomo-sNPFR, we used an *in vitro* calcium mobilization assay (Beets et al., 2011; Brough and Shah, 2009). All four putative Glomo-sNPF peptides concentration-dependently activated the heterologously expressed Glomo-sNPFR. All peptide-receptor couples displayed half-maximal effective concentrations (EC_{50}) in the nanomolar range: 0.72 ± 1.01 nM (95% confidence interval) for Glomo-sNPF-1, 1.61 ± 0.52 nM for Glomo-sNPF-2, 2.17 ± 0.65 nM for *Glomo*-sNPF-3 and 2.48 ± 1.02 nM for Glomo-sNPF-4 (Figure 4). In contrast, cells transfected with an empty expression vector and challenged with the sNPF peptides yielded no calcium responses (data not shown). As a control, we challenged the Glomo-sNPFR with Glomo-NPF that shares the C-terminal end (-R_xRFamide) of Glomo-sNPFs. Glomo-NPF was unable to activate Glomo-sNPFR (data not shown), consistent with reports in other insects (Dillen et al., 2013).

To investigate intracellular signaling of Glomo-sNPFR, we measured calcium responses of this receptor in CHO cells lacking the promiscuous $G\alpha_{16}$ subunit. Activation of Glomo-sNPFR by all four *Glomo*-sNPF neuropeptides induced strong calcium responses, indicating that Glomo-sNPFR can couple to endogenous $G\alpha_q$ -type subunits in CHO/mtAeq cells. For all peptides, EC_{50} values were similar to those observed in the presence of the $G\alpha_{16}$ protein (table 1): 2.21 ± 1.87 for Glomo-sNPF-1, 3.42 ± 2.99 for Glomo-sNPF-2, 2.67 ± 2.27 for Glomo-sNPF-3 and 11.83 ± 9.25 for Glomo-sNPF-4.

4. Discussion

The present study extended the insect sNPF research to the tsetse fly *G. m. morsitans*. We amplified the *G. m. morsitans snpf* and *snpfr* cDNA sequences and showed their corresponding protein sequences are identical to Glomo-sNPF and Glomo-sNPFR sequences predicted *in silico* (International *Glossina* Genome Initiative, 2014). The Glomo-sNPF precursor consists of 300 amino acids, including a 25 amino acid N-terminal signal peptide and four putative sNPF peptides. Of these four peptides, the biosynthesis of Glomo-sNPF-1 and Glomo-sNPF-2 has been confirmed *in vivo* by mass spectrometric analysis of tsetse extracts (Caers et al., 2015). Each of the four Glomo-sNPFs carries a C-terminal glycine residue for amidation and is flanked by mono- or dibasic cleaving sites. Glomo-sNPF-1 (AQRSPSLRLRFamide) and Glomo-sNPF-2 (SPSLRLRFamide) answer to the sNPF consensus sequence xPxLRLRFamide (Nässel and Wegener, 2011), and are identical to two *D. melanogaster* sNPF peptides (Drome-sNPF-1 and Drome-sNPF-1₄₋₁₁) (Nässel and Wegener, 2011). In contrast, Glomo-sNPF-3 (PQRLRFamide) and Glomo-sNPF-4 (PARLRFamide) lack the N-terminal leucine residue of the consensus sequence. The *Glomo-snpf* gene contains two introns (between nucleotides encoding for S³²/A³³, and for K²⁸⁵/K²⁸⁶) at positions similar to the *D. melanogaster snpf* gene (Q³⁶/G³⁷ and K²⁶⁶/H²⁶⁷), although the latter contains a third intron sequence (Q¹⁸⁹/I¹⁹⁰) (Flybase - CG13968). The presence of two identical sNPFs and two relatively well conserved intron positions corroborate the annotation of the *G. m. morsitans snpf* gene.

All arthropod sNPFRs identified so far belong to the superfamily of rhodopsin-like GPCRs (Chen and Pietrantonio, 2006; Dillen et al., 2013; Feng et al., 2003; Garczynski et al., 2007; Hauser et al., 2008; Mertens et al., 2002; Veenstra et al., 2012). Likewise, the Glomo-sNPFR sequence harbors typical rhodopsin-like amino acid patterns in its seven transmembrane domains: GN in helix 1, NLX₃DX₈P in helix 2, SX₃LX₂IX₂DRY in helix 3, WX₈P in helix 4, FX₂PX₇Y in helix 5, FX₃WXP in helix 6 and NPX₂YX₆F in helix 7 (Costanzi, 2012). The presence of multiple putative sites for phosphorylation (14), glycosylation (6) and palmitoylation (2) suggests post-translational modifications can regulate Glomo-sNPFR signaling. Protein sequence alignments of *Glomo*-sNPFR with other Dipteran sNPFRs revealed that their membrane spanning α -helices as well as the length and residues of intra- and extracellular loops are strongly conserved. One notable exception is the length of the second extracellular loop, which is clearly longer in fly species (*G. m. morsitans*, *D. melanogaster* and *M. domestica*) than in mosquito species (*A. gambiae*, and *A. aegypti*). In insects from other orders, such as *Solenopsis invicta* (Hymenoptera) or *Schistocerca gregaria* (Orthoptera), the length of this loop is comparable with those from mosquito species (Dillen et al., 2013). It remains unclear how this variable loop length may affect the functioning of sNPFRs, but possible effects include altered G-protein coupling or post-translational regulation.

Using cell-based functional studies we showed that Glomo-sNPFR is dose-dependently activated by Glomo-sNPF neuropeptides. All four Glomo-sNPF

neuropeptides activate Glomo-sNPFR with equal potency and EC_{50} values in the nanomolar range, suggesting that the identified Glomo-sNPF peptides are likely cognate ligands of the tsetse fly sNPFR. In contrast, Glomo-NPF, which shares the same C-terminal end (-RxRFamide), did not activate Glomo-sNPFR. This supports former studies in *Drosophila* showing that the -RxRFamide motif alone is insufficient for potent receptor activation (Feng et al., 2003; Mertens et al., 2002) and corroborates an only distant evolutionary relationship between NPFRs and sNPFRs (Nässel and Wegener, 2011).

Further analysis into second messenger signaling in cells without the promiscuous $G\alpha_{16}$ subunit indicated that activation of Glomo-sNPFR with Glomo-sNPFs still results in an increase in intracellular calcium with a nanomolar EC_{50} value. This endogenous coupling of sNPFRs with a $G\alpha_q$ subunit in CHO/mtAeq cells has been observed for other insect sNPFRs as well, such as *S. gregaria* (Dillen et al., 2013). Other downstream signaling pathways may, however, also be involved in Glomo-sNPFR signaling. For example, activation of *S. gregaria* and *A. gambiae* sNPFRs was found to inhibit adenylyl cyclase activity (Dillen et al., 2013; Garczyński et al., 2007). In contrast, activation of the *D. melanogaster* sNPFR by sNPF peptides has been shown to activate adenylyl cyclase through $G\alpha_s$ (Chen et al., 2013; Hong et al., 2012).

The spatial expression of *Glomo-snpf* and *Glomo-snpfr* transcripts in adult females is mainly restricted to the nervous system. *Glomo-snpfr* expression was not detected in larvae and pupae at the time points investigated. *Glomo-snpf* was likewise undetectable in larval instars, but did appear in 11- and 18-day pupae. This absence of expression in larvae is in contrast to *Drosophila*, where a large number of neurons of the central nervous system in both larvae and adults expresses *snpf* (Carlsson et al., 2013; Johard et al., 2008; Lee et al., 2004; Nässel et al., 2008). One possible explanation for this difference lies in the feeding behaviour of tsetse larvae compared to *Drosophila* larvae. Tsetse larvae are fed in utero on milk provided by the mother. After larviposition, the larvae immediately burrow into the soil and pupariate after one or two hours. Consequently, whereas *Drosophila* larvae forage, tsetse larvae do not. Since sNPF has been implicated in feeding initiation (Nagata et al., 2011) and food-seeking behavior (Carlsson et al., 2013; Root et al., 2011), this could explain the absence of sNPF expression in tsetse larvae.

For both *Glomo-snpf* and *Glomo-snpfr*, the highest expression levels were detected in the corpora cardiaca-corpora allata, while moderate levels were found in the thoracic ganglion, brain and head samples. Mass spectrometric studies confirmed the expression of Glomo-sNPF-1 in the brain and thoracic ganglion, and the presence of Glomo-sNPF-2 in the brain, thoracic ganglion and corpora cardiaca (Caers et al., 2015). The spatial transcript distributions of *Glomo-snpf* and *Glomo-snpfr* corroborate with the generally restricted expression of sNPF signaling components in the central nervous system of insects. This expression is linked to their neuromodulatory and hormonal functions in a variety of physiological processes, but with a primary function

in feeding behavior (Chen and Pietrantonio, 2006; Chintapalli et al., 2007; Dillen et al., 2016, 2014; Feng et al., 2003; Garczynski et al., 2007; Kahsai et al., 2012, 2010a, 2010b; Lu and Pietrantonio, 2011; Mertens et al., 2002; Mikani et al., 2012; Nagata et al., 2012). Whereas sNPF has been widely indicated in feeding behaviour, opposing effects have been reported. sNPF stimulates feeding and starvation-induced food-searching behaviour in *Drosophila*: gain- and loss-of-function mutations of the *snpf* gene promote or suppress food intake, respectively, and *snpfr* expression increases during starvation (Lee et al., 2004; Root et al., 2011). Expression of *snpfr* in the brain is also upregulated by food deprivation in the honey bee (Ament et al., 2011). An opposite effect on feeding has been demonstrated in, for instance, *B. mori* and *S. gregaria*, where *snpfr* transcript levels decrease in the central nervous system amongst other tissues during food deprivation (Dillen et al., 2013; Nagata et al., 2012, 2011). Since *Glomo-snpf* and *Glomo-snpfr* expression in adults was primarily detected in the brain, sNPF may regulate feeding behaviour in tsetse flies as well. However, functional studies are necessary to determine its involvement and whether it has stimulatory or inhibitory effects on food intake.

The presence of sNPF and sNPFR in the corpora cardiaca-corpora allata has previously been associated with the inhibition of juvenile hormone production (Kaneko and Hiruma, 2014; Yamanaka et al., 2008). In *B. mori*, allatotropin is thought to inhibit the expression or release of sNPF from the corpora cardiaca, which prevents sNPFR activation in the corpora allata and inhibits the corresponding allatostatic activity of sNPF (Yamanaka et al., 2008). No differentiation was made between the corpora cardiaca and corpora allata in the tsetse samples, hence it remains unclear if *snpf* and *snpfr* expression is restricted to the corpora cardiaca and/or the corpora allata, respectively. Neither the allatotropin prepropeptide nor its receptor orthologues were identified in the *G. m. morsitans* genome, making it uncertain if a similar role for sNPF signaling in juvenile hormone synthesis holds for *Glossina*. This does not rule out a putative role of Glomo-sNPF as a more general regulator of hormone release. In *Drosophila* for instance, expression of sNPF in protocerebral neurons projecting to the corpora cardiaca has been linked to a co-regulatory function of sNPF on adipokinetic hormone release or on *Drosophila* insulin-like peptide release in the corpora cardiaca (Lee et al., 2009, 2008). sNPF expression in the corpora cardiaca was also previously described in *Periplaneta americana* and its direct release into the circulation function in suppressing digestive activity during starvation (Mikani et al., 2015, 2012).

Besides expression in the nervous system, moderate levels of *Glomo-snpfr* were detected in the hindgut and/or its associated tissues. Expression of *snpfr* transcripts in this region was also reported in *S. invicta* (Chen and Pietrantonio, 2006) and may point to a regulatory function in diuresis to control osmotic homeostasis. In tsetse flies, feeding and subsequent excretion of water from the blood meal are closely intertwined, however, future research is required to clarify the role of sNPF in either

of these processes. Overall, our molecular data provide a foundation for further characterization and validation of this signaling system *in vivo*.

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Figure 1: Cloned *Glomo-snpf* cDNA sequence with corresponding prepropeptide sequence. A predicted signal peptide is indicated in bold and italics. Intron positions are represented by blue boxes. The *Glomo-snpf* sequences are indicated in black with conserved residues of the insect sNPF consensus sequence underlined: [xPxLRLRFamide] (Nässel and Wegener, 2011). Dibasic and monobasic cleaving sites are shown in gray. Monobasic cleavage sites consist of KX_nR or RX_nR where $n = 2, 4, 6$ or 8 and cleavage occurs after X_n (Veenstra, 2000).

Figure 2: *G. m. morsitans* sNPF sequence with predicted transmembrane domains (underlined), rhodopsin-like GPCR motifs (bold) and sites for post-translational modifications (coloured). The typical rhodopsin-like GPCR motifs consist of: GN in helix 1, NLX₃DX₈P in helix 2, SX₃LX₂IX₂DRY in helix 3, WX₈P in helix 4, FX₂PX₇Y in helix 5, FX₃WXP in helix 6 and NPX₂YX₆F in helix 7. Post-translational modifications in yellow: predicted glycosylation sites in the extracellular loops or N-terminal tail, in green: putative phosphorylation sites in the intracellular loops or C-terminal tail, in red: putative palmitoylation site in the C-terminal tail.

Figure 3: Expression profiles of (A) *Glomo-snpfr* and (B) *Glomo-snpf* relative to transcript levels in the female head (He) in tissues collected from adult female flies or mixed larval instars (no differentiation in sex could be made for larvae in different instars). The mean value of three biological replicates measured in triplicate is presented. Error bars indicate SEM. CC-GA: corpora cardiaca – corpora allata; TG: thoracic ganglion; SG: salivary gland; MT: Malpighian tubules; AM: anterior midgut; PM: posterior midgut; HG: hindgut; FB: fat body; RS: reproductive system; Mu: flight muscles; Br: brain; He: head; Pu-18: 18-day-old pupa; Th: thorax; Ab: abdomen; In: instar; Pu-11: 11-day-old pupa.

Figure 4: Calcium response curves of CHO/mtAeq/Gα₁₆ cells expressing *Glomo-snpf* challenged with concentration series of the *Glomo-snpf* peptides. Mean values, corrected for the negative control BSA, of three independent measurements consisting of three replicates of the concentration series are represented with corresponding \pm SEM. The EC₅₀ value is depicted with its 95% confidence interval.

Table 1: EC₅₀ values of the calcium mobilization assay performed in transiently transfected CHO/mtAeq cells.

Peptide	Sequence	Receptor	EC ₅₀ value
Glomo-snpf-1	AQRSPSLRLRFa	Glomo-snpfR	2.21 \pm 1.87 nM
Glomo-snpf-2	SPSLRLRFa	Glomo-snpfR	3.42 \pm 2.99 nM
Glomo-snpf-3	PQRLRFa	Glomo-snpfR	2.67 \pm 2.27 nM
Glomo-snpf-4	PARLRFa	Glomo-snpfR	11.83 \pm 9.25 nM

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1 catgcatttttcgcagtcgattatattttgccaaacttactggagctatattttttcatgttaatc
 1 M H F R S R L F C Q L T G A I F F M L I

 62 ggtctaatacggagctgaactattacctgatgacagtgtctttaacacatttttacgaaaac
 21 G L I G A E L L P D D S A L N T F Y E N

 122 ttattgcaacgcgaatacgcggaccggtgattctacctaatacatcagctcgagcgtaaa
 41 L L Q R E Y A G P V I L P N H Q L E R K

 182 gcgcaaagggtcaccatcggttacgccttcgctttggaagacggaatgatccggaattaatc
 61 A Q R S P S L R L R F G R R N D P E L I

 242 aggcagttacctaataaacggttggttcggtgacgtcaatcagaagcccattagatcacca
 81 R Q L P I K R W F G D V N Q K P I R S P

 302 tcgttacggtttacggttttcggaagacgttagcgatccctcgatgccgctacgttagccctttg
 101 S L R L R F G R R S D P S M P L R S P L

 362 gatatgctcataaacgcacggtttctctcaaaatcttgctaacgacaatgattacaacgat
 121 D M L I N A R F S Q N L A N D N D Y N D

 422 ttatttggcggtctattatcacgcagttgtccgtaagccacaacggtttacggttttggcgc
 141 L F G G Y Y H R V V R K P Q R L R F G R

 482 agtctacccatgaatataaatgccaagaatttcaataatgacataactctcggacgacgaa
 161 S L P M N I N A K N F N N D I L S D D E

 542 gacaagttaaacgatgccgatggcgatgccgaagtattagaaagcaataaagaaaatgat
 181 D K L N D A D G D A E V L E S N K E N D

 602 tttctcaataactttggttcaatcgtctcggttaaggaatttattagaggctttaagagaa
 201 F L N T L V Q S S R L R N L L E A L R E

 662 tacgaacactttcacgaagacattgatgaagcaaatagagcaggcaaataaaaaggaattc
 221 Y E H F H E D I D E A N E Q A N E K E F

 722 caaggcgggcaggacaatatggatgagtttgaacgagctatacgtaagccagcgcggtta
 241 Q G G E D N M D E F E R A I R K P A R L

 782 agatttggacgcagtcacaaacaacaacgtgaacacgcaaagtaagacggcacaaaaagaa
 261 R F G R S T N N N V N T Q S K T A Q K E

 842 gaaaactcagagaagaagacagacaacggcaggaaattgtcgcttaataaagaaaagac
 281 E N S E K K T D N G R K L S L N Q R K D

 902 taaatgcgctgcacgaatg
 -

692

693

694 Fig. 1

695

696

Fig. 2

Fig. 2

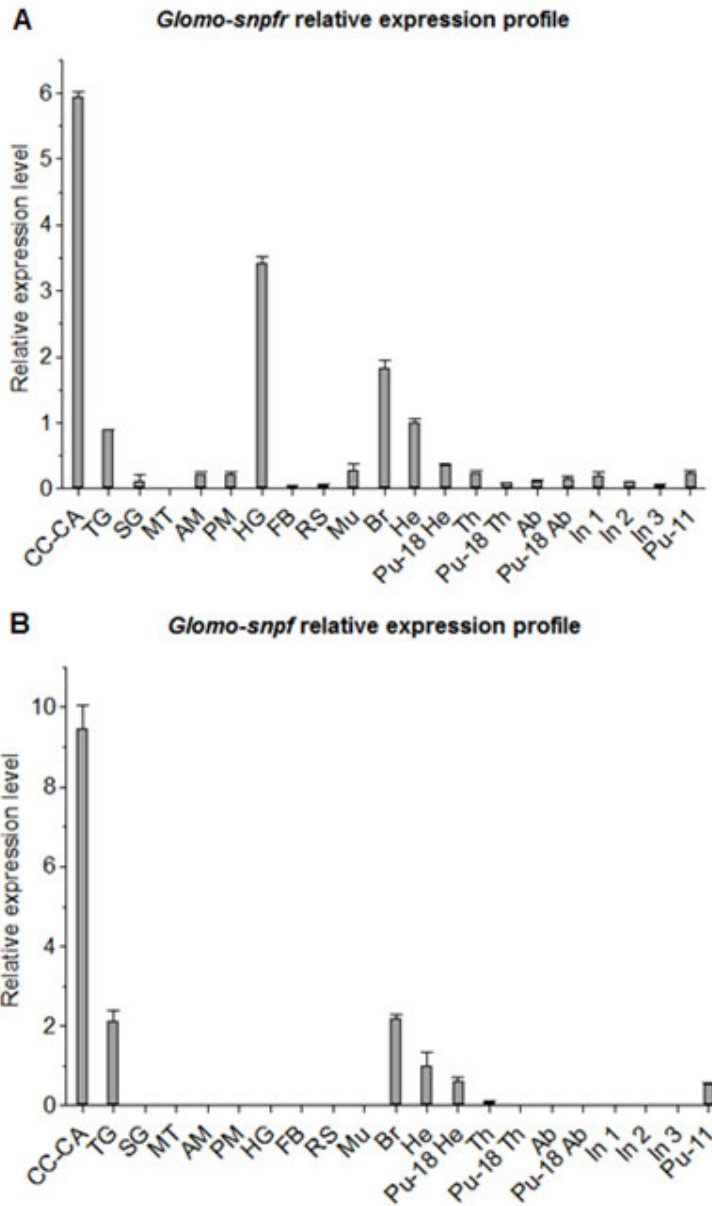


Fig. 3

Glomo-sNPF (CHO/mtAeq/Gα₁₆ cells)

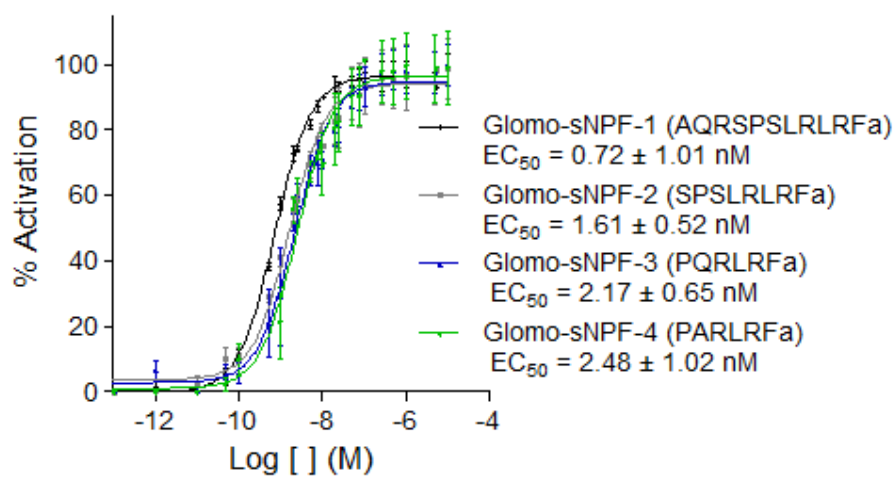


Fig. 4

712 Highlights

713 Cloning of *G. m. morsitans snpfr* and *snpf* cDNA sequences confirms the presence of
714 sNPF signaling components in tsetse flies.

715 Four Glomo-sNPF peptides concentration-dependently activate Glomo-sNPFR in
716 heterologous cells.

717 *Glomo-snpfr* transcripts in female tsetse flies are exclusively expressed at adult stage
718 and predominantly found in the corpora cardiaca-corpora allata and the hindgut.

719 *Glomo-snpf* transcripts are similarly expressed in the central nervous system of adult
720 females and additionally in pupal developmentpupae.

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